

JOURNAL OF ALGEBRA 10, 166-173 (1968)

Planar Algebraic Systems: Some Geometric Interpretations

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Communicated by Marshall Hall, Jr.

Received January 2, 1968

Marshall Hall introduced planarity into algebra by coordinatizing projective planes with planar ternary rings [4]. In [9], J. L. Zemmer defines a planar near-field to be a near-field in which each equation $ax = bx + c$ has a unique solution for $a \neq b$. In our investigations of planarity, we discovered that if $(N, +, \cdot)$ is a near-ring satisfying the above equational property, then $(N, +, \cdot)$ is a near-field. (This was conjectured by both D. R. Hughes and J. L. Zemmer in private communications.) We shall see that the interaction of $+$ and \cdot in the equation $ax = bx + c$ leads to the idea of a planar algebraic system. The algebraic structure of these systems will be discussed along with their geometric interpretation.

By a *left distributive system* we mean a triple $(N, +, \cdot)$ such that multiplication \cdot is left distributive over addition $+$. Elements $a, b \in N$ are called *left equivalent multipliers*, denoted by $a \equiv_m b$, if and only if $ax = bx$ for all $x \in N$. The relation \equiv_m is *discrete* when $a \equiv_m b$ implies $a = b$. A left distributive system is said to possess the *planar property* if the equation $ax = bx + c$ has a unique solution for $a \not\equiv_m b$.

DEFINITION 1. A left distributive system $(N, +, \cdot)$ with planar property is a *planar system* if

- (1) in $(N, +)$ the right cancellation law is valid;
- (2) in $(N, +)$ there is an identity 0;
- (3) (N, \cdot) is a semi-group;
- (4) there are at least three points in N , no two of which are left equivalent multipliers.

A planar system is *integral* if 0 is the only left zero divisor.

Let $(N, +, \cdot)$ be an integral planar system. Then $0 \cdot x = x \cdot 0 = 0$ for all

* The second author received support from NSF contract GP-2141.

$x \in N$. The equation $a \cdot x = 0 \cdot x + 0$ has a unique solution, but if $z \in N$, then 0 and $0 \cdot z$ are solutions. Hence $0 \cdot z = 0$. (This proof, due to R. S. Pierce, is a considerable improvement over that of the authors.) Let N^* denote the nonzero elements of N . If $a \in N^*$, let 1_a denote the solution to the equation $ax = a$ and let $B_a = \{x \in N^* \mid x1_a = x\}$.

We can now give our main structure theorem.

THEOREM 1. *Let $(N, +, \cdot)$ be an integral planar system. Then*

- (1) *each (B_a, \cdot) is a group with identity 1_a ;*
- (2) *the family $\{B_a\}_{a \in N^*}$ is pairwise disjoint;*
- (3) *$N^* = \bigcup_{a \in N^*} B_a$;*
- (4) *$N^*B_a = B_a$ for each $a \in N^*$;*
- (5) *if $a, c \in N^*$, then $\phi: B_a \rightarrow B_c$ defined by $\phi(x) = x1_c$ is a group isomorphism;*
- (6) *each 1_a is a left identity for $(N, +, \cdot)$*

Proof. Let $a \in N^*$. Then $a \in B_a$, so $B_a \neq \emptyset$. If $x \in N^*$, and $b \in B_a$, then $xb \in N^*$ since N is an integral planar system. Now $(xb)1_a = x(b1_a) = xb$, so $xb \in B_a$. Hence (4) and B_a is closed under multiplication. Now $a = a1_a = (a1_a)1_a = a(1_a1_a)$, so $1_a1_a = 1_a$ by uniqueness of solutions to equation $ax = a$. Hence $1_a \in B_a$, so B_a has a right identity. Let \bar{a} be the unique solution to the equation $ax = 1_a$. Then $a(\bar{a}1_a) = (a\bar{a})1_a = 1_a1_a = 1_a$, so $\bar{a}1_a = \bar{a}$ by uniqueness. Hence the right inverse of a is a member of B_a , so (B_a, \cdot) is a group. This gives (1).

If $b \in B_a$, then $b1_a = b = b1_b$, hence $1_a = 1_b$ so $B_a = B_b$. This gives (2). From the definition of 1_a we get (3) immediately.

Let $\phi: B_a \rightarrow B_c$ be defined by $\phi(x) = x1_c$. Since (4) holds, we know ϕ is from B_a to B_c . If $x, y \in B_a$, then $\phi(xy) = (xy)1_c$ and $\phi(x)\phi(y) = (x1_c)(y1_c) = x(1_c(y1_c)) = x(y1_c) = (xy)1_c$ since $y1_c \in B_c$. So ϕ is a homomorphism. Now $b1_a = b$ if $b \in B_a$, so $b(1_a1_c) = (b1_a)1_c = b1_c$, hence $1_a1_c = 1_c$ follows from uniqueness. Suppose $x1_c = y1_c$ for $x, y \in B_a$. Then $(x1_c)1_a = x(1_c1_a) = x1_a = x$ and similarly, $x = (x1_c)1_a = (y1_c)1_a = y$, so ϕ is injective. If $y \in B_c$, then $y1_a \in B_a$. Hence $\phi(y1_a) = (y1_a)1_c = y$, so ϕ is surjective. This gives (5).

Define $D_a = \{x \in N^* \mid 1_ax = x\}$. We know $1_a0 = 0$, so we must show $D_a = N^*$ to prove (6). Let $b \in N^*$, so $b1_b = b$ and $1_b1_a = 1_a$ so $1_a \in D_b = \{x \in N^* \mid 1_bx = x\}$. If $x \in D_a$, then $1_ax = x$, so $1_bx = 1_b(1_ax) = (1_b1_a)x = 1_ax = x$. Hence $x \in D_b$ and $D_a \subseteq D_b$. Similarly, $D_b \subseteq D_a$. Since $b \in D_b$ and $a \in D_b$ we get $D_a = N^*$. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Note that (4) can be extended as follows. If $S \subseteq N^*$ and if $N^*S \subseteq S$, then

$S = \bigcup_{a \in T} B_a$ for some $T \subseteq N^*$. For if $a \in S$, then $xa \in S$ for all $x \in B_a$. Our assertion follows from the fact that (B_a, \cdot) is a group.

COROLLARY. *Let $(N, +, \cdot)$ be a near-ring that is an integral planar system with \equiv_m discrete. Then $(N, +, \cdot)$ is a planar near-field.*

Proof. If $a, b \in N^*$, then $1_a \equiv_m 1_b$, so $1_a = 1_b$. Hence $B_a = N^*$.

In the sequel a near-ring that is an integral planar system will be called an *integral planar near-ring*. From the corollary, note that if $(N, +, \cdot)$ is a near-ring in which each equation $ax = bx + c$ ($a \neq b$) has a unique solution, then $(N, +, \cdot)$ is a near-field.

Let $(V, +)$ be a vector space of finite dimension $n \geq 2$ over a field F of characteristic $\neq 2$. Let $x = \langle x_1, \dots, x_n \rangle \in V$. If $x = 0 \in V$, then set $\bar{x} = 0 \in F$. Otherwise set $\bar{x} = x_i$ where $x_i \neq 0$ but $x_1 = x_2 = \dots = x_{i-1} = 0$. Define a multiplication $*$ on V by $a * b = \bar{a} \cdot b$ for $a, b \in V$ and where \cdot denotes scalar multiplication. The following theorem gives nontrivial examples of integral planar near-rings.

THEOREM 2. *If $(V, +)$ is a vector space of dimension $n \geq 2$ over a field F of characteristic $\neq 2$, then*

- (1) $(V, +, *)$ is a planar near-rings;
- (2) $(V, +, *)$ is a near-algebra over F ;
- (3) if $\bar{B}_a = B_a \cup \{0\}$, then $(\bar{B}_a, +, *)$ is a near-field and a left ideal of $(V, +, *)$.

Proof. The proofs of (1) and (2) are direct. That each $(\bar{B}_a, +, *)$ is a near-field follows from a direct proof that $(\bar{B}_a, +)$ is a group and the fact that $(B_a, *)$ is a group (see (1) of Theorem 1). That $(V, +, *)$ is a left ideal follows from (4) of Theorem 1.

THEOREM 3. *Let $(V, +)$ be a normed linear space over the real numbers with norm $\|\cdot\|$. Define multiplication $*$ on V by $a * b = \|a\|b$. Then*

- (1) $(V, +, *)$ is a planar near-ring;
- (2) $(V, +, *)$ is a near-algebra over the real numbers;
- (3) if $\bar{B}_a = B_a \cup \{0\} \cup B_{-a}$, then $(\bar{B}_a, +, *)$ is an integral planar near-ring and a left ideal of $(V, +, *)$.

Proof. The proofs of (1) and (2) are straightforward. If $a \neq 0$ and $a \in V$, then $1_a = a/\|a\|$. Hence $1_{-a} = -a/\|a\| = -1_a$. Since $B_a = \{\lambda 1_a \mid \lambda > 0\}$, $B_{-a} = -B_a$. Now apply (1) and (4) of Theorem 1.

We remind the reader that an *affine plane* A is a triple (P, L, on) where P is

a set of "points," L is a set of "lines" and on is a relation in $P \times L ((p, l) \in P \times L$ is read p is on l or l is on p) satisfying: (a) two distinct points are on a unique line; (b) every line contains at least two distinct points; (c) there are at least 3 distinct points not on the same line; and (d) given a line $l \in L$ and a point $p \in P$, p not on l , there is one and only one line m on p such that l and m are not on any common point. Two lines $l, m \in L$ are said to be parallel, written $l \parallel m$, if and only if $l = m$ or l and m are on no common point. If $p, q \in P$, let $l(p, q)$ denote the line in L on both p and q . A map $\sigma : P \rightarrow P$ is called a *dilatation* if, and only if, for every pair $p, q \in P$, $p \neq q$, if $m \parallel l(p, q)$ where $\sigma(p)$ is on m then $\sigma(q)$ is on m . A map of all points in P onto a single point $p_0 \in P$ is called *degenerate*. All other dilatations are called *non-degenerate*. The mapping $I : P \rightarrow P$ defined by $I(p) = p$ for all $p \in P$ is called the *identity* map. A non-degenerate dilatation σ is called a *translation* if, and only if, either $\sigma = I$ or $\sigma(p) \neq p$ for all $p \in P$. An affine plane is said to be *coordinatized by a skew field* K if and only if there is a bijection $K \times K \rightarrow P$ such that the images of the set $\{(x, y) \mid y = xm + b\}$ and $\{(a, y) \mid y \in K\}$, for arbitrary but fixed $m, a \in K$, yield precisely the lines of the affine plane.

An affine plane $A = (P, L, on)$ can be coordinatized by a skew field if and only if the following axioms hold:

(4a) given any two points $p, q \in P$, there is a translation τ such that $\tau(p) = q$;

(4bP) for a given $p \in P$ and for any $q, r \in P$ such that p, q, r are distinct and collinear, there exists a dilation σ such that $\sigma(p) = p$ and $\sigma(q) = r$.

The translations of an affine plane form a group under the operation of composition. The group of translations is Abelian when axiom (4a) holds.

For more information on the above material see Chapter 2 in Artin [1]. The following concepts are discussed in a paper by V. P. Zarovnyi [7].

A group $(G, +)$ is a $\Phi(I, IV)$ group if and only if there is a family $\{G_\alpha\}$ of subgroups of G satisfying:

- (1) $G = \bigcup_\alpha G_\alpha$;
- (2) $G_\alpha \cap G_\beta = \{0\}$ if $\alpha \neq \beta$;
- (3) each G_α is normal in G ;
- (4) if $\alpha \neq \beta$, then G_α and G_β generate G .

Theorems I, II, III, and IV of [7] show that if G is a $\Phi(I, IV)$ group, then the elements of G and the cosets of the G_α are the points and lines, respectively of an affine plane.

THEOREM 4. *A $\Phi(I, IV)$ group is Abelian and either torsion free or a direct sum of cyclic groups of prime order p .*

Proof. The relation \parallel is an equivalence relation and the equivalence classes are called *pencils* of parallel lines. A non-degenerate dilatation preserves pencils. The pencils of a $\Phi(I, IV)$ group G are the cosets of some G_α . The mappings $\tau_g : x \mapsto x + g$ permute the cosets of a G_α and therefore define a non-degenerate dilatation. Now τ_g is the identity or leaves no point fixed, so τ_g is a translation. Note that for $g_1, g_2 \in G$, there is a $g \in G$ such that $\tau_g(g_1) = g_2$. Hence axiom (4a) holds. Hence the group of translations is Abelian. But each translation τ is determined by $\tau(x)$ for some $x \in G$. So the group of translations is isomorphic to the group of mappings $\{\tau_g \mid g \in G\}$ which is isomorphic to G .

If there is an $x \in G$, $x \neq 0$, such that $nx = 0$ for some integer n , then $p \mid n$ for some prime p and $x_\alpha = (n/p)x$ has order p . Let $x_\alpha \in G_\alpha$. If $y \neq 0$ and $y \in G_\beta$, $\beta \neq \alpha$, then $p(x_\alpha + y) = py$. Now $x_\alpha + y \notin G_\alpha \cup G_\beta$ since $G_\alpha \cap G_\beta = \{0\}$. If $x_\alpha + y \in G_\gamma$, $\gamma \notin \{\alpha, \beta\}$, then $py = p(x_\alpha + y) \in G_\gamma$, yielding $py = 0$. Argue similarly with y replaced by x_α to show that any element in G_α has order p .

Note that the assumptions of the following theorem are satisfied by the examples of planar near-rings given in Theorem 2 for $n = 2$.

THEOREM 5. *Suppose $(N, +, \cdot)$ is an integral planar near-ring and each $\bar{B}_a = B_a \cup \{0\}$ is an additive normal subgroup. Also suppose that no $\bar{B}_a = N$ but any two \bar{B}_a, \bar{B}_c generate N under $+$. Then:*

- (1) *each $(\bar{B}_a, +, \cdot)$ is a near-field and a left ideal;*
- (2) *$(\bar{B}_a, +, \cdot)$ is isomorphic to $(\bar{B}_c, +, \cdot)$ if $(x + y)1_c = x1_c + y1_c$ for all $x, y \in B_a$;*
- (3) *$(N, +)$ is Abelian and is isomorphic to the direct sum $\bar{B}_a \oplus \bar{B}_c$ as groups;*
- (4) *the points of N are the points of an affine plane A with the cosets of the \bar{B}_a as lines;*
- (5) *the plane A can be coordinatized by a skew field.*

Proof. By hypothesis, each $(\bar{B}_a, +)$ is a group. Each (B_a, \cdot) is a group follows from Theorem 1. Hence $(\bar{B}_a, +, \cdot)$ is a near-field. The mapping $\phi : \bar{B}_a \rightarrow \bar{B}_c$ defined by $\phi(x) = x1_c$ is an isomorphism. Now (3) follows since $(N, +)$ is a $\Phi(I, IV)$ group and the hypothesis that \bar{B}_a and \bar{B}_c generate $(N, +)$. Since $(N, +)$ is a $\Phi(I, IV)$ group, (4) follows. There remains to show (5). In the proof of Theorem 4, we have shown that axiom (4a) is satisfied. The map $d_t : x \mapsto tx$, $t \neq 0$, is a dilatation fixing 0. To see this, note that $t\bar{B}_{x-y} \subseteq \bar{B}_{x-y}$ hence $t(\bar{B}_{x-y} + y) \subseteq \bar{B}_{x-y} + ty$ which implies that $tx, ty \in \bar{B}_{x-y} + ty$, a line parallel to $\bar{B}_{x-y} + y$. Let 0, x, y be distinct colinear

points. Then $x, y \in \bar{B}_a$ for some a . Since $x \neq 0$ and $y \neq 0$, there is a $t \in B_a$ such that $tx = y$. Hence axiom (4bP) holds.

Theorem 3 provides examples of near-rings satisfying the conditions of the following theorem.

THEOREM 6. *Let $(N, +, \cdot)$ be an integral planar near-ring and define $\bar{B}_a = B_a \cup \{0\} \cup B_{-a}$. Suppose each \bar{B}_a is an additive normal subgroup, no $\bar{B}_a = N$, but any two \bar{B}_a, \bar{B}_c generate N under $+$. Then*

- (1) *each $(B_a, +, \cdot)$ is an integral near-ring and a left ideal of $(N, +, \cdot)$;*
- (2) *$(\bar{B}_a, +, \cdot)$ is isomorphic to $(\bar{B}_c, +, \cdot)$ if $(x + y)1_c = x1_c + y1_c$ for all $x, y \in \bar{B}_a$;*
- (3) *$(N, +)$ is Abelian and is isomorphic to the direct sum $\bar{B}_a \oplus \bar{B}_c$ as groups;*
- (4) *the points of N are the points of an affine plane A with the cosets of the \bar{B}_a as lines;*
- (5) *the plane A can be coordinatized by a skew field provided each $B_{-a} = -B_a$.*

Proof. The proof of (1) follows from hypothesis and (4) of Theorem 1. The mapping $\phi : B_a \rightarrow \bar{B}_c$ defined by $\phi(x) = x1_c$ is an isomorphism of near-rings. The group $(N, +)$ is a $\Phi(I, IV)$ group, hence (4) and (3) follows from Theorem 4 and hypothesis. There remains to show (5). The maps $\alpha : x \mapsto -x$ and $\beta : x \mapsto tx, t \neq 0$, define dilatations. Suppose $x, y \in \bar{B}_a, 0, x$, and y distinct. If $x, y \in B_a$, choose $t \in B_a$ such that $tx = y$ and argue as in the proof of Theorem 5. Do similarly if $x, y \in B_{-a}$. Finally, suppose $x \in B_a$ and $y \in B_{-a}$. Then there is a t such that $t(-x) = y$. The dilatation $\beta \circ \alpha$ fixes 0 and sends x into y . Hence axiom (4bP) holds. The proof of Theorem 4 shows that axiom (4a) holds, hence our proof is complete.

THEOREM 7. *Suppose $(N, +, \cdot)$ is a finite integral planar near-ring and each $\bar{B}_a = B_a \cup \{0\}$ is an additive subgroup. Also suppose that no $\bar{B}_a = N$ but any two \bar{B}_a, \bar{B}_c generate N under $+$. Then*

- (1) *$(N, +)$ is Abelian;*
- (2) *the points of N are the points of an affine plane A with the cosets of the \bar{B}_a as lines;*
- (3) *the affine plane A can be coordinatized by a field $(F, +, \cdot)$;*
- (4) *each $(\bar{B}_a, +, \cdot)$ is a field;*
- (5) *each $\bar{B}_a = \{(x, mx) \mid x \in F\}$ for some $m \in F$, or $\bar{B}_a = \{(0, x) \mid x \in F\}$.*

Proof. Each $(\bar{B}_a, +, \cdot)$ is a finite near-field, and Zassenhaus (in [8]) has shown that $(\bar{B}_a, +)$ is isomorphic to a direct sum of the cyclic groups Z_p, p a

prime. Hence $(N, +)$ is a finite p -group. We know from Theorem 4.3.1 of [5] that the center Z of N is nontrivial.

Let $c \neq 0$ be in Z . If $a \neq 0$, there is a unique $x \in N$ such that $ax = c$; i.e., $f_a(x) = c$ where f_a is the automorphism of $(N, +)$ defined by $f_a(x) = ax$. Since f_a^{-1} is also an automorphism, we have $x = f_a^{-1}(c)$, so $x \in Z$. As c runs thru Z , so does x ; hence $ax \in Z$ for all $x \in Z$.

If $a \in Z$ and $a \neq 0$, then $a \in B_a$ and there is an a' such that $a'a = 1_a$, so $1_a \in Z$. This gives $B_a \subseteq Z$. I.e., if $a \in Z$ and $a \neq 0$, then $B_a \subseteq Z$. Since B_a, B_c generate N if $B_a \neq B_c$, we have for $x, y \in N$, $x = \alpha + \beta$ and $y = \alpha' + \beta'$ where $\alpha, \alpha' \in B_a$ and $\beta, \beta' \in B_c$. So

$$x + y = (\alpha + \beta) + (\alpha' + \beta') = (\alpha' + \beta') + (\alpha + \beta) = y + x.$$

Hence $(N, +)$ is Abelian. This gives (1).

The hypothesis of Theorem 5 are satisfied, hence (2). By (5) of Theorem 5, the affine plane can be coordinatized by a finite skew field, but a finite skew field is a field $(F, +, \cdot)$.

Now each $(B_a, +, \cdot)$ is a near-field, so we need only show that \cdot is commutative. We now view $(N, +)$ as the group of vectors located at $0 \in N$ associated with the affine plane A . The maps $t \mapsto s \cdot t$, $s \in B_a$, are dilatations of A and endomorphisms of $(B_a, +)$, so they act as stretchings of our vectors. Hence they commute since the affine plane A is described by a vector space over a field. This gives (4).

Part (5) follows from (3).

We conclude with some amusing examples of integral planar systems:

(1) Let $(F, +, \cdot)$ be a field. Define $+_\lambda$ ($\lambda \neq 0$) by

$$a +_\lambda b = \begin{cases} b, & \text{if } a = 0 \\ a + (\lambda b), & \text{if } a \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Then $(F, +_\lambda, \cdot)$ is a nontrivial integral planar system where \equiv_m is discrete and $+_\lambda$ is not necessarily associative.

(2) The following diagram defines a multiplication \cdot on the cyclic group $(Z_5, +)$ such that $(Z_5, +, \cdot)$ is an integral planar near-ring. Note that $B_1 = \{1, 4\}$, $B_2 = \{2, 3\}$.

\cdot	0	1	2	3	4
0	0	0	0	0	0
1	0	1	2	3	4
2	0	4	3	2	1
3	0	1	2	3	4
4	0	4	3	2	1

Define $\bar{B}_i = B_i \cup \{0\}$ and $B_{ij} = \bar{B}_i + j$, $i = 1, 2; j \in Z_5$. If we let $I = Z_5$, then the B_{ij} are circles of an inverse plane [3, 6]. This example was obtained using a digital computer. (See [2]).

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